

**THE “I” IN TEAM: COACH INCIVILITY, COACH SEX, AND TEAM
PERFORMANCE IN FEMALE BASKETBALL TEAMS**

A Thesis

by

AMBER LEOLA SMITTICK

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
MASTER OF SCIENCE

August 2012

Major Subject: Psychology

The “I” in Team: Coach Incivility, Coach Sex, and Team Performance in Female
Basketball Teams

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ABSTRACT

The “I” in Team: Coach Incivility, Coach Sex, and Team Performance in Female
Basketball Teams. (August 2012)

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Chair of Advisory Committee: Dr. Kathi N. Miner

With the continuing influx of teams in the workplace it is important to understand how incivility affects team success. The purpose of this study was to address this topic by investigating the effects of leader incivility towards team members on team outcomes. The team emergent states of team satisfaction, team cohesion, and team commitment were tested as mediators between team leader incivility and team performance. Additionally, leader sex was examined as a moderator to the incivility emergent states relationship. The current study used a sample of female college basketball teams to test the proposed model. Results revealed that leader incivility had a detrimental effect on team emergent states and subsequently team performance. These findings further the understanding of incivility in a team setting and its effect on team performance.

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INTRODUCTION

Hostile glances, talking condescendingly, and purposely ignoring someone's request are common occurrences in many work environments (Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner, 2001; Pearson & Porath, 2009). These are examples of uncivil behaviors in the workplace. *Workplace incivility* is defined as "seemingly inconsequential inconsiderate words and deeds that violate conventional norms of workplace conduct" (Pearson & Porath, 2009, p.12). Pearson and Porath (2009) found that 96% of people sampled in the U.S. have experienced workplace incivility and an estimated 12% of employees leave their job as a result, costing organizations an average of \$50,000 per employee to replace them. Even more cost can be incurred when victims of incivility take out or vent their frustrations from these experiences on customers and other members of the organization (Gonthier, 2002; Penney & Spector, 2005). Uncivil behaviors also detract from targets' psychological, physical, and occupational well-being. Additionally, these occurrences have been documented across a multitude of contexts including law enforcement, universities, and service sectors (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001; Cortina et al., 2002; Pearson & Porath, 2009).

Research investigating the consequences of workplace incivility has primarily been conducted at the individual level, and findings highlight the detrimental consequences of personally experiencing incivility (e.g., Cortina et al., 2001). Yet as organizational effectiveness becomes more and more hinged on the utilization of teams

This thesis follows the style of *Journal of Applied Psychology*.

(Salas, Cooke, & Rosen, 2008), there becomes a need to assess effects of incivility at the team level. Further given that team leaders set the tone for interpersonal relations in teams (Yukl, 2005), there is a particular need to address the role team-leader incivility plays within team contexts. As Morgeson and Hoffman (1999) asserted, constructs can mean something different at the team level than at the individual level due to the emergence of a collective property via team interactions. Therefore, it is critical to understand how the incivility construct emerges at the team level. Incivility research has also been conducted under the assumption that outcomes are limited to the individual; as such little is known about why or how incivility at the team level affects critical team outcomes.

The purpose of the current thesis is to examine how leader incivility toward team members affects team attitudes and team performance (see Figure 1). As such, each of these variables is operationalized at the team-level rather than the individual-level. Team attitudes are examined as mediators of the relationship between leader incivility and team performance. Further, how the relationships among team leader incivility, team attitudes, and team performance may differ as function of the sex of the incivility instigator (i.e., team leader) is also investigated. I assess these relationships in a sample of college women basketball players. In these highly interdependent teams, I expected leader incivility to relate to less positive team attitudes (e.g., team satisfaction, team commitment, and team cohesion) as well as lowered team performance (e.g., fewer wins and more losses), especially when the team leader is male. Below, I build arguments for

how and why incivility from team leaders, particularly male leaders, should relate to negative team attitudes and in turn negative team performance. To begin, a brief review of teams and the input-mediator-output-input (IMOI) model of team functioning (Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, & Jundt, 2005) is presented, followed by a discussion of workplace incivility, and an overview of the team attitudes of interest in this study. After an overview of the topics of interest, hypotheses are presented as well as the method and results and finally a discussion of the findings and their implications.

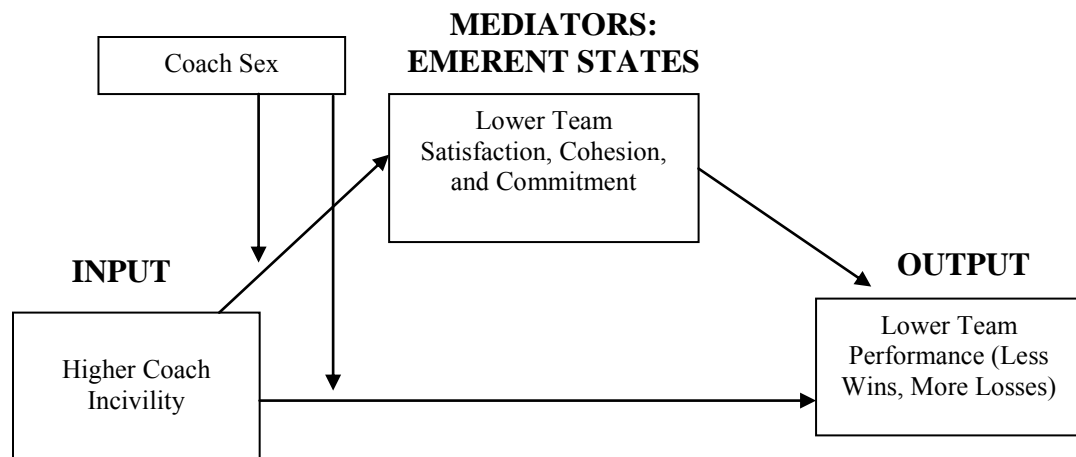


Figure 1: Proposed moderated mediation model of coach incivility and team performance

WORK TEAMS AND THE IMOI MODEL

Teams are groups of interdependent individuals working together to complete a common organizational goal (Sundstrom, DeMeuse, & Futrell, 1990). Building upon years of team research and countless definitions, Kozlowski and Ilgen (2006) identified the core characteristics that define a work team. They specify that a work team is a group of at least two or more individuals that interacts and has common goals; they perform organizational tasks; are interdependent in their work, goals, and outcomes but have distinct and unique roles and responsibilities; and they are embedded in the broader organizational context. In the present study, I examine experiences of incivility within college basketball teams; these teams encompass all of these characteristics. Additionally, basketball teams represent a team that is highly interdependent, that is the members of these teams must work closely together for the team to be successful (Arthur, Edwards, Bell, Villado, & Bennett, 2005).

Team functioning is typically understood through some input-output framework that identifies factors that facilitate or inhibit team performance (Cannon-Bowers & Bowers, 2010). Most recently, the *input-mediator-output-input* (IMOI) model of team functioning has been used to understand team performance (Ilgen et al., 2005). Building off of the classic *input-processes-output* (I-P-O) model of team functioning (McGrath, 1964), the IMOI model proposes that team outcomes (e.g., performance) are influenced through both inputs (e.g., leaders and leadership behavior) and meditational emergent states (Ilgen et al., 2005). *Emergent states* are “constructs that develop over the life of the team and impact team outcomes” (Ilgen et al., 2005, p. 520) and are often

conceptualized as team attitudes (Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008). An *attitude* is an individual's general opinion about some object (Schleicher, Hansen, & Fox, 2010). Attitudes are important because they play an important role in affecting the way individuals process information and make sense of a complex world (Katz, 1960). Common examples of emergent states include team cohesion, satisfaction, and commitment (Ilgen et al., 2005).

The IMOI model also shifts the focus away from simply examining the direct links of each component of the model to recognizing that each component can also interact. This stance highlights the potential for direct and indirect influences on team outcomes. Additionally, the IMOI model proposes a feedback loop from outputs to future inputs. However, for the purpose of this study, I will not investigate this proposed link. Instead, I focus on negative leadership behaviors (e.g., leader incivility) as the input component, team emergent states (e.g., team cohesion, satisfaction, and commitment) as mediators, and team performance as the team outcome component of the model. The proposed model examined in the present study appears in Figure 1.

Input: Leadership in Teams

Teams research and the IMOI model specifically propose that leaders play a critical role in shaping team emergent states (i.e., attitudes) and team performance (Ilgen et al., 2005; Mathieu et al., 2008). Team leaders shape team experiences and interactions through a process of influencing and moving team members toward a collective goal (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2005; Yukl, 2007). Correspondingly, meta-analytic results have documented links between leadership and both the attitude and performance components

of the IMOI model (e.g., Burke, Stagl, Klein, Goodwin, Salas, & Haplin, 2006; Foels, Driskell, Mullen, & Salas, 2000). For example, Foels et al. (2000) reported a link between leadership style and team satisfaction, such that teams with democratic leaders had higher satisfaction than those with autocratic leaders. Burke et al. (2006) identified how various leadership styles affect team performance outcomes (e.g., effectiveness, productivity). Their meta-analytic results revealed that task-focused leadership behaviors (e.g., transactional leadership) accounted for 11% of the variance in perceptions of team effectiveness and 4% for team productivity. Leadership behaviors that were person-focused (e.g., transformational leadership) had an even bigger impact, as they accounted for significant amounts of variance in team effectiveness perceptions (13%), team productivity (8%), and team learning (31%). Additionally, in the sport literature Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) identified five dimensions of leadership behavior involved in coaching. These dimensions include training and instruction, democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, social support, and positive feedback. These behaviors formed an overarching leadership construct that had positive relationships with athlete satisfaction, team cohesion, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Aoyagi, Cox, & McGuire, 2008). These findings, from both the organizational and sport literature, suggest that leadership plays a key role in affecting team functioning directly through influencing team outputs (e.g., team performance) as well as through various mediators (e.g., attitudes).

Top-down Incivility. In line with the recognition of leadership as a critical input component of the IMOI model, I propose that incivility is one way team leaders

negatively influence team emergent states and team performance. Uncivil behaviors directed toward lower-status individuals by someone of higher status are referred to as *top-down incivility* (Caza & Cortina, 2007). By enacting acts of dominance toward lower-status group members, those in higher ranks solidify their position of authority (Sidanius, Pratto, van Laar, & Levin, 2004). Porath, Overbeck, and Pearson (2008) argued that uncivil behaviors, in particular, are one way of imposing power and control over others. In short, incivility is a potential means of enforcing power differences, such that those of higher status may be more inclined to use such methods and those in less powerful positions are more vulnerable to such exercises of power.

Top-down incivility is common in organizational contexts and appears to be especially detrimental. For example, Pearson and Porath (2009) reported that about 60% of incivility instigators in numerous samples had higher organizational status than the target. Cortina et al. (2001) found that instigators tend to have more power and status compared to incivility targets. Similarly, Miner, Settles, Pratt-Hyatt, and Brady (2012) found that instigators were more likely to be supervisors than coworkers. Participants in this study also reported more thoughts about leaving their organization and being less satisfied with their jobs when the instigator was in a higher occupational position. Along the same lines, Caza and Cortina (2007) found that when university students experienced incivility from instigators at higher levels of the institution it increased their perceptions of injustice. Injustice perceptions in turn led to dissatisfaction, disengagement, and lowered academic performance. These findings highlight the particularly harmful effects of top-down incivility.

Researchers examining related constructs have also demonstrated the negative effects of mistreatment from a leader. Tepper (2000) theorized that mistreatment from high status individuals can lead to deleterious outcomes due to violations of justice expectations. Individuals expect to be treated with respect in the workplace (Bies & Moag, 1986) and when this expectation is violated frustration and dislike for the environment it is occurring in is likely to set in (Tepper, 2000). Findings from the abusive supervision literature support the top-down incivility findings that interpersonal mistreatment is particularly detrimental when the instigator is of higher status. For instance, Tepper (2007) reported that abusive supervision was linked to a host of negative outcomes for targets and organizations such as deviance, negative work-related attitudes (e.g., low job satisfaction and organizational commitment), poor performance, turnover, and psychological distress; these outcomes are similar to those reported for workplace incivility. Moreover, meta-analytic findings on outcomes of interpersonal mistreatment (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010) demonstrate that status plays an even larger role in domain specific outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction) in comparison to other more distal outcomes (e.g., life satisfaction). Together, these findings suggest that mistreatment from a team leader will have the most detrimental effects in the team domain.

Workgroup Incivility. Research has demonstrated the deleterious effects of incivility on individuals and organizations. A notable area that has been understudied is the effects of incivility in team settings. The growing body of literature investigating incivility embedded in social settings (e.g., workgroup incivility) can serve as a starting

point to understanding incivility in the team domain. *Workgroup incivility* is incivility that is experienced from being in a context that is characterized by uncivil behaviors as opposed to being a direct target of incivility (Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008). Lim et al. (2008) demonstrated that experiences of workgroup incivility had a negative effect on a target's mental health and job satisfaction. Miner-Rubino and Reed (2010) also found that workgroup incivility was related to lower job satisfaction as well as to increased turnover intention, and that these relationships were mediated by group trust. Pearson and Porath (2009) also linked incivility in group settings with lower trust and more thoughts about leaving the group, as well as declines in motivation and energy within the group.

While this research demonstrates that group experiences of incivility are related to a host of negative outcomes, none of the extant workgroup incivility literature has captured the critical element of interdependence when studying the phenomenon of incivility in these settings. Team interdependence is a function of team relatedness (extent to which a task cannot be performed by one individual) and team workflow (the way work and information flows through a team; Arthur et al., 2005). Interdependence is the distinguishing characteristic that separates teams from individuals and groups and it is essential component in teams in general and especially in action teams (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000).

The focus of incivility research has not taken into account the effects of interdependency and has instead been focused on individual members' outcomes within the group (e.g., Lim et al., 2008) rather than collective attitudinal and performance

outcomes. Additionally, while there has been research investigating top-down incivility, none has looked at this construct in an interdependent team setting. In the present study I address how *team leader incivility*, which represents the team's experience of incivility from the higher-status team leader, affects important team outcomes.

Incivility and Performance. While incivility has been linked to a number of psychological outcomes, its link to performance has not been extensively studied. Work by Porath and Erez (2007, 2009) has begun to assess the influence of incivility on individual performance outcomes. In a laboratory setting, Porath and Erez (2007) found that experiencing incivility not only lowered a target's performance on anagram and creativity tasks, but also inhibited creativity and flexibility when performing these task. These detrimental effects on performance were mediated by a disturbance to the target's concentration and short-term memory capability (Porath & Erez, 2007). These findings suggest that experiencing incivility can cause a target to lose focus which then negatively affects their task performance. Porath and Erez (2009) found that observing incivility also hindered task performance. In their study, witnesses of rude behaviors had lower task performance, creativity, and citizenship behaviors.

Together these above findings, while at the individual level of analysis, are potentially applicable at the team level. Based on findings on top-down incivility, abusive supervision, workgroup incivility, and incivility and performance, I propose that team-leader incivility negatively affects team performance.

Hypothesis 1: Team leader incivility will be negatively related to team performance (e.g. lower win percentage).

Mediators: Emergent States in Teams

I propose that team-leader incivility may also have an indirect relationship with performance via team emergent states, that is team satisfaction, cohesion, and commitment will each partially mediate the relationship between leader incivility and team performance. Indeed, the IMO model proposes that team outcomes (e.g., performance) are influenced through both inputs (e.g., leader incivility) and meditational emergent states, such as those proposed in the current study (i.e., team satisfaction, cohesion, and commitment; Ilgen et al., 2005). The transactional model of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) also provides a theoretical framework for understanding how incivility leads to negative outcomes. A *stressor* is a “situation which requires an adaptive response” (p. 2) and *strain* is the negative responses to a stressor (Jex, 1998). In the present study, incivility is conceptualized as a stressor while the different outcome variables are considered strain. This theory posits that detrimental psychological effects begin with a negative appraisal of an event (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). When individuals appraise events as potential stressors, they evaluate the extent to which they have adequate resources to handle and cope with the stressor. When resources are deemed insufficient, the individual experiences strain which can manifest in a variety of different forms (e.g., lower job satisfaction, worse mental and physical health). In the case of incivility, if a target appraises an uncivil behavior as a negative, it then becomes a stressor with the potential of leading to strain outcomes, such as cognitive and affective impairment (Cortina & Magley, 2009; Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2000).

The negative appraisal of uncivil behaviors has been linked to a host of negative stress responses (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). For example, Cortina and Magley (2009) found that targets of incivility evaluated their experiences as frustrating, annoying, and offensive. Cortina et al. (2001) reported a link between uncivil experiences and lower job satisfaction, increased job withdrawal, and greater psychological distress for targets. Lim and Cortina (2005) found that incivility had a negative impact on a target's mental health, life satisfaction, and physical health. Caza and Cortina (2007) found that experiences of incivility incited feelings of rejection and ostracism for targets. Taken together, these findings highlight the particularly negative effects of incivility on individual attitudes and well-being. Research extending these effects to team-level attitudes has not yet been explored. Following the tenets of the IMOI model as well as empirical findings on the consequences of uncivil behaviors, I propose that leader incivility will result in decreases in team satisfaction, team cohesion, and team commitment. I briefly review each of these constructs in the following sections.

Team Satisfaction. Team satisfaction at the individual level is an individual's personal affective liking of the team and its members (Ilgen et al., 2005). In many models of teams, satisfaction is considered an important team outcome that is a part of team effectiveness (Guzzo & Dickinson, 1996; Hackman, 1987; Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). Satisfaction's role has been expanded in the IMOI model where it is also considered an emergent state and important team attitude (Ilgen et al., 2005). Satisfaction can be lowered through negative experiences, such as workplace incivility (Brief & Weiss, 2002). For example, Cortina et al. (2001) reported a significant decrease

in job satisfaction as occurrences of incivility rose. Similarly, Lim et al. (2008) found that workgroup incivility also had negative effects on satisfaction. Additionally, Hershcovis and Barling (2010) found that supervisor aggression was more negatively related with job satisfaction than co-worker or customer aggression. The abusive supervision literature has also found consistent negative relationships between abusive behaviors and job satisfaction (Tepper, 2007).

These findings also extend to the team level. At the team level, *team satisfaction* represents the team's shared affective liking of the team and team members, which is formed through the interactions that make up the team rather than just the feelings of one team member (Chan, 1998). George (1996) proposed that group level satisfaction is formed as a function of "group affective tone" which can be both positive and negative. When the affective tone is negative as a result of a negative team experience (e.g., team leader incivility) then team satisfaction is lowered. Taken together, this suggests that experiences of leader incivility has a negative effect on team-level team satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: Team-leader incivility is negatively related to team satisfaction.

Team Cohesion. A sense of cohesion towards one's team is reflected in an individual's desire to stay with the team, work collectively, and remain dedicated to reach the common team goal (Carron, 1982). Gross and Martin (1952) distinguish between two different types of cohesion, task and interpersonal. Task cohesion is concerned with the team's commitment and focus towards the team goal. Interpersonal or social cohesion reflects team member's liking and attraction of the group (Evan &

Jarvis, 1980). It can also be described as the “emotional glue” that holds teams together (Barsade & Gibson, 1998).

Along these lines, Pearson and Porath (2009) noted that when incivility occurs in teams, members feel disconnected from and care less about the team. This disconnect symbolizes an antithesis to team cohesion. Yet research is still lacking in identifying the antecedents of cohesion as well as the mechanisms that foster cohesion (Kozolowski & Ilgen, 2006). In his review of the sports cohesion literature, Carron (1982) identified leadership as one of the four key facets that impact cohesion in groups. I propose that team leader incivility is one possible behavior that detracts from team cohesion.

Hypothesis 3: Team-leader incivility is negatively related to team cohesion.

Team Commitment. Commitment to the team represents the level of psychological attachment a member has toward the team (Pearce & Herbik, 2004). At the team level *team commitment* indicates the emergence of a higher-level construct that is formed through the combination of each individual team member’s evaluation of commitment to their team. In short it represents the team’s collective level of attachment to the team; this definition reflects Meyer and Allen’s (1991) affective commitment construct. Affective commitment has demonstrated strong relationships with organization-relevant criteria (e.g., attendance, performance, and organizational citizenship behavior) in comparison to the other forms of commitment (Meyer, Stanley, David, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002).

Though organizational and team commitment have been demonstrated to be distinct constructs (Bishop, Scott, Goldsby, & Cropanzano, 2005), findings related to

organizational commitment guide our understanding of the incivility-commitment relationship. Tepper (2000) found that targets who experienced abusive supervision had lower affective and normative commitment towards their organization. Similarly, at the individual level, incivility has been shown to negatively impact organizational commitment (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2007). While these findings are at the individual level, they suggest that incivility can have a detrimental effect on team-level commitment. Incivility can upend commitment because negative interactions may wear on team members and weaken their emotional attachment to the team as they seek to lessen the stress associated with these negative social interactions. Therefore, I propose that leader incivility has a negative effect on team commitment.

Hypothesis 4: Team-leader incivility is negatively related to team commitment.

Team Attitudes and Performance

The linkage of attitudes to performance behaviors is based on decades of past research investigating attitudes in many domains including the organizational context (e.g., Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989; Ostroff, 1992; Salanick & Pfeffer, 1978). For example, the theory of planned behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1985, 1991) proposes that behaviors are largely shaped by an individual's attitude toward a behavior. These behaviors are planned because people are motivated to engage in behaviors that are consistent with their attitudes. Thus, in relationship to job performance, employees will engage in behaviors that are consistent with their job attitudes (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). In the context of the current study, I propose that teams will be motivated to engage in team performance behaviors that are

in line with team attitudes. For example, teams that are high in team cohesion will engage in behaviors that reflect their attachment and liking of the team, working cooperatively to accomplish the team goal.

Most research has examined the relationship between attitudes and performance behaviors at the individual level (Riketta, 2008). For example, Riketta (2008) found both job satisfaction and organizational commitment were antecedents to employee's individual job performance. Other individual-level meta-analyses have found modest correlations that corroborate these findings (e.g., Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006; Judge et al., 2001). Past research has also shown relationships between job attitudes and performance occurring at higher-level (e.g., groups and organizations; Mason & Griffin, 2005, Ostroff, 1992, Whitman, Van Rooy, & Viswesvaran, 2010). Ostroff argues that such investigations are important because, "individual measures do not reflect the interactions and dependencies in the work process... that measures of organizational effectiveness encompass." (p. 969). Based on this assertion, past empirical research, and the tenets of the IMOI model (Ilgen et al., 2005), I propose that team attitudes affect team performance.

In discussing the job satisfaction-task performance relationship, Brief (1998) acknowledged the need to match the target components (e.g., supervisor and group) to the specific job activities, because the positive feelings associated with that component relates to involvement, interest, and enthusiasm for the activities. This assertion is particularly relevant to the satisfaction-performance relationship in teams, because as team members are satisfied with each other they will have more positive feelings and

emotions towards accomplishing team tasks. Though not always specifically looking at team satisfaction, some research has begun to investigate the relationship between group-level job satisfaction and group performance. A recent meta-analysis by Whitman et al. (2010) found a significant correlation between the unit-level job satisfaction and unit-level performance. Mason and Griffin (2005) found a relationship between group task satisfaction and team performance. They also found that group task satisfaction includes multiple facets including a dimension that represents satisfaction with the team. This team satisfaction facet subsequently predicted aspects of team performance. Ostroff (1992) also found these relationships at the organizational level. These studies provide evidence for a satisfaction-performance link at the group level, for both job and team satisfaction. In line with these findings, I propose that team satisfaction is related to team performance.

Hypothesis 5: Team satisfaction is positively associated with team performance.

As discussed earlier, incivility has been linked to satisfaction at both the individual and group level, as well as individual performance (Cortina et al., 2001; Lim et al., 2008; Porath & Erez, 2007). Coupled with the documented relationship between satisfaction and performance, I propose that satisfaction may also serve as a link between incivility and performance. While this relationship has not been looked at explicitly, some stress research has investigated satisfaction as a mediator to more distal strain outcomes. For example, at the individual level, Podsakoff, LePine, and LePine (2007) found that job satisfaction mediated the relationship between hindrance stressors (e.g., situational constraints and hassles) and turnover intentions. Based on this past

research, I predict that team satisfaction mediates the relationship between this stressor (leader incivility) and team performance.

Hypothesis 6: Team satisfaction mediates the relationship between leader incivility and team performance; that is, higher incivility is associated with lower team satisfaction which in turn relates to lower team performance.

I propose that team cohesion also mediates the team leader incivility- team performance relationship. Cohesion is assumed to be related to team performance because it serves to energize and motivate the group towards success (Mullen & Cooper, 1994). Carron, Brawley, and Widmeyer (1998) highlight the link between cohesion and performance in their definition of cohesion as they acknowledge that cohesion is reflected in the group's pursuit of its objectives. Moreover, multiple meta-analyses have documented that team cohesion has a positive relationship with team performance (e.g., Beal, Cohen, Burke, & McLendon 2003; Gully, Devine, & Whitney, 1995). In the sports setting, Carron, Colman, Wheeler, and Stevens (2002) also found a positive relationship between cohesion and performance. Interestingly this relationship to performance was stronger in female sports teams despite male and female teams having similar levels of cohesion. The authors hypothesized that emotions and team affect may be more impactful in female sports teams and thus when these factors are negatively affected cohesion and performance are disrupted. Additionally, Raver and Gelfand (2005) found a positive relationship between team cohesion and team financial performance. They also found that team cohesion also served as a mediator between ambient sexual hostility and team performance such that groups that reported higher

levels of sexual harassment were less cohesive and subsequently had lower financial performance. These findings demonstrate the importance of team cohesion on team outcomes along with its role as an important mediator in the stressor-performance relationship. Therefore, I propose that cohesion is linked to team performance and that it mediates the relationship between incivility and team performance.

Hypothesis 7: Team cohesion is positively associated with team performance.

Hypothesis 8: Team cohesion mediates the relationship between leader incivility and team performance; that is, higher incivility is associated with lower team cohesion which in turn relates to lower team performance.

Empirical research has not established a clear relationship between team commitment and team performance. At the individual level, organizational commitment is considered to be an important contributor to job performance because in its qualities of identification and attachment to the organization comes the intention to work hard and remain a part of the organization (Riketta & Van Dick, 2005). Indeed, meta-analytic results support a positive relationship between affective organizational commitment and job performance (Riketta, 2008). Van Steenbergen and Ellemers (2009) also found that an individual's commitment to the workgroup was positively related to individual job performance. Other meta-analytic findings show that workgroup commitment has a positive relationship with both an individual's in-role and extra-role performance (Riketta & Van Dick, 2005). Related to the current study, Becker (2009) found a moderate relationship between team commitment and team performance.

Furthermore, organizational commitment has also been documented as a mediator between leadership behaviors and work stressors and job outcomes (Podsakoff et al., 2007; Yousef, 1999). Podsakoff et al.'s (2007) meta-analysis found that hindrance stressors were negatively related to organizational commitment which was then negatively related to turnover intentions and withdrawal behaviors. In relation to leader behaviors, Yousef (1999) found that more consultative and participative leader behaviors, as opposed to exploitative and authoritarian behaviors, were positively related to organizational commitment, which was positively related to job performance. Both of these findings guide the hypotheses for the present study, as team leader incivility represents both a hindrance stressor and a negative leadership behavior. When members of a team are treated rudely they may feel less attached to the team and this disconnect then thwarts effective performance. Following these findings, I propose that team commitment is related to team performance. I also propose that team commitment serves as a mediator in the leader incivility-performance relationship.

Hypothesis 9: Team commitment is positively associated with team performance.

Hypothesis 10: Team commitment mediates the relationship between leader incivility and team performance; that is, higher incivility is associated with lower team commitment which in turn relates to lower team performance

Moderator: Leader Sex

In addition to the direct and meditational effects of leader incivility on emergent states and performance, I propose that the leader's sex moderates the relationship between leader incivility and team outcomes. I propose this moderation based on

findings regarding status effects on incivility outcomes as well as theory and research related to dissimilarity between supervisors and subordinates.

First, in reference to status, incivility researchers have examined both achieved and ascribed forms of status and their relation to incivility. *Achieved status* is based on personal attributes that individuals have some control over, such as competence, motivation, or of particular relevance, organizational position (Ravlin & Thomas, 2005). On the other hand, individuals have no control over their *ascribed status* which relates to membership in certain social groups (e.g., race, sex). Status plays a role in incivility interactions because, as discussed earlier in reference to top-down incivility, incivility is a method high-status individuals can use to impose their position of power on lower-status subordinates (Sidanius et al, 2004; Porath et al., 2008). The effects of incivility from a higher-status individual are particularly detrimental because low-status individuals have limited means to cope with this kind of mistreatment so the experienced strain is more extreme (Caza & Cortina, 2007).

Incivility findings provide support for this position. In relation to sex as an ascribed status, Cortina et al. (2001) identified that women were more likely to be targets of incivility and Pearson and Porath (2004) found that instigators of incivility were twice as likely to be male. Correspondingly, though Miner et al. (2012) did not find that incivility instigators were more likely to be male, she did find that employees reported higher turnover intentions and more job stress when instigators were male. Instigators of incivility are also most often in higher achieved status positions than targets, such as supervisors being rude to subordinates (Caza & Cortina, 2007, Cortina et al, 2001;

Pearson & Portath, 2009). When incivility is instigated by these high status individuals, it also leads to more negative appraisals of the situation as well as worse outcomes (Caza & Cortina, 2007; Cortina & Magley, 2009). These negative appraisals may be a result of the targets feelings of helplessness because their lower status position limits their coping resources (Cortina & Magley, 2009). Taken together, these findings suggest that both achieved and ascribed status characteristics of incivility instigators and targets play a role in shaping experiences and consequences of incivility. In particular, males and supervisors tend to be the most common instigators, and incivility from these individuals appears to lead to worse outcomes for targets.

The dissimilarity literature also provides support for the proposition that leader sex impacts incivility experiences in teams. Findings in this area propose that when individuals are demographically similar to each other positive feelings are evoked because a person is more likely to see the positive attributes in someone similar to them and that builds a positive social identity, whereas when individuals are dissimilar they tend to view and treat each other less favorably because they are part of the out-group (Tsui & Gutek, 1999). Indeed demographic dissimilarity is related to lower job satisfaction (Mueller, Finley, Iverson, & Price, 1999; Wesolowski & Mossholder 1997) and psychological attachment (Mueller et al. 1999; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992). In relation to leadership, Van Knippenber and Hogg (2003) highlight the importance of the alignment of group membership characteristics and characteristics of the leader, which they call group prototypicality. When leaders are perceived to be a part of the ingroup they are more highly endorsed and perceived as effective (Van Vugt & DeCremer, 1999;

DeCremer & Van Knippenberg, 2002). When there are differences, they have the potential to create an “us” versus “them” dynamic in the team which can heighten the negative effects of incivility.

In the current study, I investigate incivility from team leaders. While the team leader role represents its own formal and legitimate leadership role akin to achieved status, the power difference heightens when the leader is male. Male coaches are dissimilar demographically from female team members and this may contribute to more negative reactions to incivility. As such, I propose that the negative relationship between incivility, team satisfaction, team cohesion, team commitment, and team performance is more detrimental when instigated by male leaders (higher status/more dissimilar) compared to female leaders (lower status/less dissimilar):

Hypothesis 11: Leader sex moderates the relationship between leader incivility and team performance. Teams with male leaders will have lower team performance with higher leader incivility than teams with female leaders.

Hypothesis 12: Leader sex moderates the relationship between leader incivility and team satisfaction. Teams with male leaders will have lower team satisfaction with higher leader incivility than teams with female leaders.

Hypothesis 13: Leader sex moderates the relationship between leader incivility and team cohesion. Teams with male leaders will have lower team cohesion with higher leader incivility than teams with female leaders.

Hypothesis 14: Leader sex moderates the relationship between leader incivility and team commitment. Teams with male leaders will have lower team commitment with higher leader incivility than teams with female leaders.

The purpose of the present study is to investigate how team leader incivility affects team attitudes and team performance and examine if these relationships differ as a function of leader sex. The hypotheses will be tested using a sample of National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I women's basketball teams. Athletic teams have been used in organizational research on multiple occasions (e.g., Dirks, 2000; Totterdell, 2000) and offer a number of benefits when examining team phenomena. College basketball teams are of particular interest in studying team interactions because of the complex nature of the basketball setting as well as the high interdependence in these types of teams. These characteristics make them analogous to action teams in organizational settings (Sundstrom et al., 1990; Sundstrom, McIntyre, Halfhill, & Richards, 2000). Additionally, wins and losses provide a reliable and valid measure of team performance that is unaffected by individual team member's perceptions. Similarly, the NCAA has set forth a number of rules and guidelines to set a consistent standard among the different schools to manage such activities as the recruitment, funding, and practice schedules. These standards provides a level of uniformity across teams which assist in making comparisons across teams because many potential confounds . Of particular relevance to the present study, women's college basketball teams provide a unique situation where the leadership in these types of teams can vary by sex (e.g., a male or female head coach). These issues are typically a concern

in collecting data within a team setting. As such the present study offers numerous contributions to the team literature by examining the proposed relationships in an ideal team setting.

METHOD

Participants

Participants were 204 National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I women's basketball players from 52 teams. An average of 3.49 players ($SD = 1.66$) responded for each team. The respondents mean age was 20.5 years ($SD = 1.34$). Players had been with their teams for an average of 3.5 years. Eight percent of the sample were freshman, 24% were sophomores, 20% were juniors, and the largest percentage were seniors (40%). Nine percent did not specify their classification. With regard to ethnicity, the majority of the sample was White (55 %); 39 % were Black/African American; 2% Asian, Asian American, or Pacific Islander; 1% were Hispanic; and 2% identified as other.

Measures

Coach Incivility. Participants completed a measure assessing their experiences of coach incivility via an adapted version of the Workplace Incivility Scale tailored to the team context (WIS; Cortina et al., 2001). The WIS measures the frequency of being treated in a rude and discourteous manner. In the current study, participants were given the stem, "During the past year, has a coach ON YOUR TEAM engaged in any of the following behaviors?" They were then asked to rate six behaviors on a response scale from 0 (*never*) to 4 (*always*). Example behaviors from the WIS include "Put you down or was condescending to you?" or "Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you?" Coefficient alpha for the WIS in the current study was .88.

Team Satisfaction. Team satisfaction was measured with 12 items adapted from Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) job satisfaction scale. Participants were asked to rate on a 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) response scale the extent to which they agreed with statements addressing their satisfaction with the team. Example items include "At this moment, I am finding real enjoyment in working with my team." and "Right now, I consider my team rather unpleasant." (reverse coded). Coefficient alpha for the sample was .93.

Team Cohesion. Team cohesion was measured with a four-item scale created by Seashore (1954). Participants were asked to rate on a 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) scale the extent to which they agreed with statements addressing their perceptions of cohesion in the team. Participants rated items such as "Team members help each other on and off the court." and "Team members stick together." Coefficient alpha for the sample was .84.

Team Commitment. Commitment to one's team was measured with an affective job commitment measure (Meyer, Allen, & Gellatly, 1990) adapted to reflect commitment to the team. Participants rated eight items on a 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) scale. Example items include, "I would be very happy to remain with this team while at this university." and "This team has a great deal of personal meaning for me." Coefficient alpha for the scale was .92.

Team-level Variables. Information pertaining to team performance and coach sex was gathered from each university's athletic website, for the 2010-2011 season. Team performance was operationalized by calculating the team's win percentage (total

wins/total number of games). Two raters coded coach sex by referencing pictures posted in coach's biography on the university websites. The raters had 100 % agreement. The majority of teams in our data were coached by women (65%).

Procedures

Data was collected via an online survey during the summer of 2010. Potential participants were identified through NCAA.com. In the 2009-2010 season there were 4,766 female basketball teams playing on 332 teams (National Collegiate Athletic Association, 2010). Each team had an average team size of 14.4 players. Athletes from 99 randomly selected teams were chosen to participate in the current study. In June 2010, email addresses for these players were gathered by extensive searches first through each school's online directory and then through social networking sites (e.g., Facebook) and search engines (e.g., Google). Players with available addresses ($N = 1,139$) were then contacted by email and invited to participate in a "Team Interactions" online survey. Participation in the survey was incentivized by offering players the chance to win one of ten \$100 prizes through a random lottery. Overall, there were 229 respondents (20% response rate). Teams with only one player responding were not included in the current study.

Analysis

The data analysis for this study was conducted at the team level because the key predictors in the model (team leader incivility, team satisfaction, team commitment, and team cohesion) and the dependent variable (objective team performance) are all team-level variables (Rousseau, 1985). Kozlowski and Klein (2001) stipulate that when

assessing subjective team properties (such as the predictors in the proposed model) it is critical to measure them at the psychological level because the individual is the origin for these types of states. Morgeson and Hofmann (1999) also assert that it is individuals who determine these collective constructs, again highlighting the importance of assessing these constructs at the individual level. Although they originate at the individual level, shared properties are different from single-individual measurements because they represent the emergence of a collective construct, which is the result of interactions between the team members (Morgeson & Hofmann, 1999). These properties are therefore assumed to emerge as a function of the shared context and experiences of the group. In short, these constructs originate at the individual team member level and converge to become a characteristic of the group (Kozlowski & Klein, 2001).

The measurement of each predictor variable at the individual level also allows for an assessment of the “sharedness” of the property. The level of sharedness is the basis for forming the group-level construct in a direct consensus model; the higher-level construct represents the shared perceptions among the team members on that characteristic (Chan, 1998). At the higher level, individual-level constructs therefore take on new definitions that integrate the sharedness aspect as evidenced by the team-level definitions. The level of sharedness is a critical component of each team-level variable and is essential to determine whether they are in fact shared before aggregation.

RESULTS

Before study variables were aggregated, r_{wg} , ICC, and within and between analyses (WABA) were run to check the appropriateness of aggregation. The r_{wg} value measures within-group agreement and determines whether group members are similar enough to support aggregation (James, 1982; James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984).

Intraclass correlations (ICC) measure the consistency/reliability of raters within a group (Dixon & Cunningham, 2006). ICC(2) values are synonymous with reliability within the group and thus should be above .70. WABA values inform researchers if individuals should be viewed as members of a group, if they are better conceptualized as distinct from the group, or if they are complimentary to other members of a group but still unique (Dixon & Cunningham, 2006). In short, the r_{wg} values determine whether group members are similar enough to each other and the ICCs values confirm this aggregation to the team-level.

In the present study, the average r_{wg} for each variable was above the recommended .70 (coach incivility = .78, team satisfaction = .80, team cohesion = .78, team commitment = .80) and three-quarters of the groups had r_{wg} over .70 for each of the variables. Additionally, the F test between groups was significant and each of the team-level variables had satisfactory ICC(1) and ICC(2) values ranging from .10-.19 and .70-1.0, respectively, providing further evidence in favor of aggregation. While the E values for the WABA test did not support aggregation, r_{wg} and the ICCs as well as the theoretical meaning of the constructs at a team-level supported the decision to conduct the analyses at the team level.

Descriptive statistics and correlations for the aggregated study variables are presented in Table 1. As shown in Table 1, coach incivility was negatively correlated with each of the team emergent states and with team performance. All the emergent states were highly positively correlated. The team emergent states were also all positively related to team performance. Coach sex was not significantly correlated to any of the other study variables. Additionally, independent sample t-tests revealed that teams coached by men and women were not significantly different from each other on any of the study variables (see Table 2).

Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations, Scale Reliabilities and Intercorrelations among Study Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5
1. Performance	.51	.20	-				
2. Coach Incivility	1.99	.69	-.28*	(.88)	-		
3. Team Satisfaction	3.76	.53	.31*	-.56**	(.93)	-	
4. Team Cohesion	3.70	.60	.31*	-.31*	.69**	(.84)	-
5. Team Commitment	3.68	.62	.35*	-.48**	.85**	.77**	(.91)
6. Coach Sex	—	—	-.19	.00	-.03	-.08	-.03

Note: Coach sex coded 0 = male, 1 = female

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 2
Results of Independent Sample T-tests for All Study Variables and Coach Sex

	Male	Female	<i>t</i>
Performance	0.57	0.49	1.23
Coach Incivility	1.99	1.99	-0.01
Team Satisfaction	3.77	3.75	0.20
Team Cohesion	3.77	3.67	0.56
Team Commitment	3.71	3.68	0.19

Note: Male coaches $n = 18$, female coaches $n = 34$

Hypotheses 1-4 were tested via OLS regression. The mediation and moderated mediation hypotheses (Hypotheses 5-14) were tested using the SPSS INDIRECT (Preacher & Hayes, 2008) and MODMED macros (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). First, I tested the direct effects of leader incivility on team emergent states and team performance. I then tested the indirect effect of leader incivility on team performance via team emergent states. Lastly, the macro tested the incivility to team performance and team emergent states relationships as a function of coach sex.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that team leader (i.e., coach) incivility would be negatively related to team performance. In support of Hypothesis 1, coach incivility was significantly negatively related to team performance ($\beta = -.28, p < .05$). Hypotheses 2-4 predicted that coach incivility would be negatively related to each of the team emergent states. The results indicated that coach incivility was significantly negatively related to

each of the team emergent states (satisfaction, $\beta = -.56, p < .05$; cohesion, $\beta = -.31, p < .05$; commitment $\beta = -.48, p < .05$, supporting all three hypotheses.

My second set of hypotheses (Hypotheses 5-14) predicted that the team emergent states would be positively related to team performance and that they would serve as mediators of the coach incivility performance relationship. Tables 2, 3, and 4 display the results for these analyses. Hypothesis 5 was supported; team satisfaction was positively related to team performance ($\beta = .31, p < .05$). However it was no longer significant when leader incivility was also a predictor, thus the mediation hypothesis (Hypothesis 6) was not supported. Team cohesion was positively related to team performance as predicted in Hypothesis 7 ($\beta = .31, p < .05$), and it served as a mediator of the relationship between incivility and performance ($B = -.06$) in support of Hypothesis 8. Team commitment was also significantly positively related to team performance as predicted in Hypothesis 9 ($\beta = .35, p < .05$). Additionally, the mediation hypothesis for the indirect effect between coach incivility and team performance through team commitment was supported ($B = -.04$; Hypothesis 10). Because the p -value assumes a normal distribution and this assumption is typically violated in smaller samples such as ours, bootstrapping intervals were also used to test the mediation effects. These bootstrapping results supported the indirect effects findings, as the confidence intervals did not include zero (cohesion 90% bootstrap CI = $-.05$ to $-.01$; 90% commitment bootstrap CI = $-.08$ to $-.01$).

Lastly, coach sex was examined as moderator, such that the relationships between coach incivility on team emergent states and team performance would be higher

in teams with male coaches (Hypotheses 11-14). The results of the analyses appear in Tables 3-5. The interaction of coach incivility and coach sex was not significant for any of the proposed outcomes, disconfirming our hypotheses.

Many of our hypotheses were supported. First, coach incivility was significantly negatively related to all three team emergent states as well as to team performance (Hypotheses 1-4). Additionally the team emergent states were each positively related to team performance. There were mixed results for our mediation hypotheses (Hypothesis 6, 8, 10); although both team cohesion and team commitment mediated the relationship between coach incivility and performance, team satisfaction did not. Finally, coach sex was not a significant moderator of the relationships between coach incivility and team emergent states or performance.

Table 3
Team Satisfaction Simple Mediation and Moderated Mediation Results

	B	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Simple Mediation				
Incivility → Satisfaction	-.43	.09	-4.82	.00
Satisfaction → Performance	.08	.06	1.35	.18
Incivility → Performance	-.08	.04	-2.10	.04
Incivility → Performance (controlling for Satisfaction)	-.04	.04	-1.00	.32
Bootstrap Results				
	M	SE	LL90% CI	UL 90% CI
Incivility → Satisfaction → Performance	-.03	.02	-.08	.00
	B	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Moderated Mediation				
Incivility x Coach Sex → Satisfaction	.25	.21	1.21	.23
Incivility x Coach Sex → Performance	.04	.08	.46	.65
Incivility x Coach Sex → Performance (controlling for Satisfaction)	.02	.08	.27	.79

Table 4
Team Cohesion Simple Mediation and Moderated Mediation Results

	B	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Simple Mediation				
Incivility → Cohesion	-.27	.12	-2.33	.02
Cohesion → Performance	.08	.05	1.80	.08
Incivility → Performance	-.08	.04	-2.10	.04
Incivility → Performance (controlling for Cohesion)	-.06	.04	-1.48	.14
Bootstrap Results				
	M	SE	LL90% CI	UL 90% CI
Incivility → Cohesion → Performance	-.02	.01	-.05	-.01
	B	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Moderated Mediation				
Incivility x Coach Sex → Cohesion	.35	.27	1.30	.20
Incivility x Coach Sex → Performance	.04	.08	.46	.65
Incivility x Coach Sex → Performance (controlling for Cohesion)	.02	.08	.25	.80

Table 5
Team Commitment Simple Mediation and Moderated Mediation Results

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Incivility → Commitment	-.43	.11	-3.93	.00
Commitment → Performance	.09	.05	1.87	.07
Incivility → Performance	-.08	.04	-2.10	.04
Incivility → Performance (controlling for Commitment)	-.04	.04	-.99	.33
Bootstrap Results	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>LL90% CI</i>	<i>UL 90% CI</i>
Incivility→ Commitment→ Performance	-.04	.02	-.08	-.01
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Moderated Mediation				
Incivility x Coach Sex → Commitment	.33	.26	1.27	.21
Incivility x Coach Sex → Performance	.04	.08	.46	.65
Incivility x Coach Sex → Performance (controlling for Commitment)	.02	.08	.24	.81

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In this study, I extend the literature on incivility by investigating incivility in teams and its relationships with team performance and team attitudes. Up until this point, incivility research has been primarily focused on the individual and individual outcomes (e.g., Caza & Cortina, 2007; Cortina et al., 2001). While this literature has been helpful in extending incivility theory and its impact on organizations as a whole, an integral part of organizations has been over looked in this field of study, that is, incivility's impact on teams. Teams, and action teams particularly, represent a setting where individuals are highly interdependent as they are required to coordinate and work together to accomplish a common goal (Sundstrom et al., 1990). Because of the role of interdependency in these types of settings, the impact of incivility is not limited to an individual but to the highly interdependent collective. The current study was a test of this assertion as it measured the impact of incivility not on individual outcomes but on its effects on team outcomes.

Results indicated that incivility from a team leader negatively impacted team attitudes and team performance and that team commitment and team cohesion mediated the relationship between leader incivility and team performance. That is, as incivility from a team leader increased, satisfaction, cohesion, commitment, and performance decreased in teams. Additionally, the decreases in team commitment and team cohesion were related to the decreases in team performance. These results extend the extant literature by demonstrating the negative effects of incivility in teams as well as by indentifying mediators through which incivility affects performance. Contrary to

hypotheses, these effects were not stronger in teams led by men as dissimilarity and power theories would suggest. Overall, incivility was negatively related to negative team attitudes and those team negative attitudes then impeded team performance regardless of the leader's sex.

Although both team commitment and cohesion mediated the incivility-performance relationship, team satisfaction did not. This finding may be attributed to how team satisfaction was conceptualized in the current study. Satisfaction was measured as a broader construct but considering the focus of the present study it would have been better to investigate a more narrow facet of satisfaction, that is satisfaction with the team leader. Lim et al. (2008) found that incivility had a larger negative impact on workers satisfaction with their supervisor and coworkers than on their overall job satisfaction. Lim et al., also found that it was supervisor satisfaction, and not coworker satisfaction, that mediated the link between incivility and turnover intentions and health outcomes. These findings, coupled with the findings of the current study, suggest that it is important to focus on multiple facets of satisfaction, including leader satisfaction, because of the critical role leaders play in shaping the team environment.

Cohesion and commitment may have been significant mediators because of the important roles they play in performance in highly interdependent teams (Barrick, Bradley, Kristoff-Brown, & Colbert, 2007). In the current study, the mediation results for team commitment and team cohesion demonstrate their importance and how uncivil behaviors can disrupt both commitment and cohesion and in turn negatively impact performance. As Barrick et al. acknowledged, "Members of a highly *cohesive* team will

be motivated to work to achieve the shared goals that characterize interdependent teams because of their *commitment* to the team,” (p. 546; italics added). Thus, while satisfaction was not a mediator of the incivility and performance relationship, cohesion and commitment may have been because of their criticality to success in highly interdependent teams.

Theory and empirical findings from the incivility literature suggest that incivility from a higher status individual may be more detrimental. In the current study, we examined two status characteristics sex of the leader as an ascribed status variable and head coach position as an achieved status variable. Contrary to hypotheses, coach sex was not a significant moderator of the incivility- team outcome relationships. This null result may be attributed to the different effects of each operationalization of status. In this particular context, the achieved status variable of coach may be more significant as the power and status difference between coaches and players is so salient in the athletic environment (Tomlinson & Yorganci, 1997). That is, mistreatment from a high status coach no matter what their sex may supersede any differential effects that could occur from mistreatment from a male rather than a female.

Additionally, there also is also the possibility of detrimental effects for women teams from being mistreated by another woman due to their expectations for respect from someone similar to them being violated. Past research has demonstrated that individuals form stronger bonds with people in their reference groups (those people they share certain characteristics with such as gender, or race; Clark 1972). That is, female team members may more closely identify with their coach when it is a woman rather

than a man. This increased identification may heighten the negative effects from being treated rudely by a female coach. Thus, in the current sample the competing reasons underling mistreatment experiences from male and female coaches may cancel each other out leading to the null result. Though leader sex was not significant in present study it is certainly an area of research that is in need of more research, especially in different context where single sex teams are not the norm.

Theoretical Implications

This study advances the incivility literature in numerous ways. First, to my knowledge, this is the first study that has investigated the link between incivility and team outcomes. Lim et al. (2008) and Miner-Rubino and Reed (2010) investigated the effects of workgroup incivility but the dependent variables in these studies were individual-level and not team-level outcomes. By focusing on highly interdependent basketball teams, the current study was able to extend incivility theory into the team domain where interdependence plays a crucial role. The current study linked incivility to team-level attitudes as well as team performance, demonstrating that incivility is not only an individual-level phenomenon but has a much broader impact than has been previously explored.

The current study used the IMOI theoretical framework (Ilgen et al., 2005) to investigate the mediating role that team attitudes play in the incivility and performance relationship. This advances theory in not only the team literature but also the incivility literature by examining pathways through which incivility affects important outcomes. Additionally, the current study provides evidence that incivility is not only affecting

affective outcomes such as satisfaction and commitment but through these effects it is also negatively impacting performance. As such, incivility researchers can better understand the different mechanisms that underlie this pervasive phenomenon. Related to the team literature, the current study identified leader incivility as a crucial input in the IMOI process. Additionally, while it was not a focus of the current study incivility can potentially be the last “I” in the model as it may be the result of a bad performance episode. The model and the findings for this study set the stage for an area of future research that investigates team incivility as both an outcome and an input.

Caza and Cortina (2007) were the first to examine *top-down incivility* and the current study expanded upon this construct by investigating how this form of incivility functions in a team setting. Leaders have always been identified as integral components of teams (Yukl, 2005). The current study demonstrates how uncivil behaviors from team leaders negatively affect team outcomes. This linkage confirms past leadership research by again highlighting the influence team leaders have on team functioning.

Limitations and Future Directions

There are a number of limitations of the present study which suggest avenues for future research in this area. Though the current sample provided an ideal context to test my hypotheses, the sample is a unique one. The sports context has a number of similarities with organizations but there are also a number of differences that may lead to slightly different results in a work context. The uniqueness in the context may limit the generalizability of some of the findings in the current study. The choice of using only female teams for the current study was used to test the leader sex hypothesis, but teams

being only comprised of females are not always very likely in the organizational context. Additionally, the aggressive nature of the sporting world may have underestimated the relationships between incivility and team outcomes as these types of behaviors may be more a part of the norm in these types of teams. The findings of the present study are most relevant to action teams as athletic teams are just one example of these types of teams, as they are highly interdependent teams that perform in intense situations (Sundstrom et al., 1990). Thus findings from this study can first be extended to these types of work teams and then future research can examine how the incivility-team outcome relationships differ as a function of the type of team and level of interdependence.

Additionally, while data collection resulted in over fifty teams the response rate for players was 20%, which could raise concerns of non-response bias. Future research should work to get samples that incorporate teams with all members responding to investigate the relationships in complete teams and not just a subset of members.

Conclusions

The present study makes a number of contributions to the incivility literature. First, as mentioned previously, teams are an integral part of organizations and their success. Despite the growth of teams in organizations, incivility has not been studied in a team context limiting our knowledge of how the incivility affects these units made up of interdependent individuals. The present study addresses this issue by studying incivility in highly interdependent athletic teams and showing the detrimental effects of incivility in this context. Second, by linking incivility to an objective measure of team

performance (i.e., team win percentage), I mitigated concerns associated with common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Third, research linking incivility to performance to date has been in the experimental domain (Porath & Erez 2007); the present study assessed this relationship in a real-world setting. Fourth, the examination of team attitudes as mediators of the incivility-performance relationship increases our understanding of why experiencing incivility from team leaders leads to performance declines. Together, these factors advance our understanding of incivility in organizational contexts.

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